

TEACHING LISTENING & SPEAKING

Slide 1: Teaching Listening and Speaking - Introduction -

(One day one of my Korean students asked me, “Do you like to eat snakes?” And I was like sorry but what? snakes? and she was like yeah snakes! As I was kind of surprised by this question and was going to say “Well, not really, but then her friends helped her with the pronunciation. Actually what she meant was if I like to eat snacks.:)

What is the first question we ask people to check their foreign language skills?
“Do you speak English? for example. Of course, we do not mean to exclude comprehension when we say that, but when we think of foreign language learning, we first think of speaking.

When you ask your ESL students what they mostly would like to study, they usually tell you ‘Speaking’. ‘I want to improve my speaking skills. or I want to speak English fluently.’ is what you hear from them. Well, at least this has been the case for me most of the time. For this reason, the importance of listening and speaking in language learning can hardly be overestimated.

Slide 2: The importance of Listening~ What does listening involve?

Listening is often implied as a component of speaking. Subsequent pedagogical research on listening comprehension made significant refinements in the process of listening. Studies looked at the effect of a number of different contextual characteristics and how they affect the speed and efficiency of processing aural language.

We all know that language is best learned if it is used in meaningful communication.

Listening involves identifying information, searching memories, relating that information to those memories, filling it the proper spot (or) creating a new place for it, and using it when needed.

Slide 3: What are the key questions about listening? (Elicit ideas from TA's)

What are listeners doing when they listen?

What factors affect good listening?

What are characteristics of “real life” listening?

What are the many things listeners listen for?

What are some principles for designing listening techniques?

How can listening techniques be interactive?

What are some common techniques for teaching listening?

(Some suggested ideas: listening develop a wide variety of receptive skills- we listen for gist/details- inferring meaning from the context- extract main ideas or information etc.)

Hopefully, you will be able to find the answers of these questions in this presentation.

Slide 4: What makes Listening difficult?

Clustering: In written language we are conditioned to attend to the sentence as the basic unit of organization. In spoken language, due to the memory limitations and our predisposition for ‘chunking’ or ‘clustering, we break down speech into smaller groups of words. In teaching listening comprehension, therefore you need to help students to pick out manageable cluster of words. In most listening situations the aim is not to remember the specific words, or phrases used but to extract the main ideas or information.

Redundancy: Spoken language unlike most written language, has good deal of redundancy. In conversations we

notice the re-phrasings, repetitions, elaborations, and little insertions of 'I mean' and 'you know'. Such redundancy can help the hearer to process meaning by offering more time and extra information. Learners can train themselves to profit from such redundancy by first becoming aware that not every new sentence or phrase will necessarily contain new information by looking for the signals of redundancy.

(handout 1-short sample dialog/ Teaching by Principles pg:252)

Reduced forms: While spoken does indeed contain a good deal of redundancy, it also has many reduced forms. Reduction can be phonological (Djeetyet? for Did you eat yet?), morphological (contractions like I'll), syntactic (elliptical forms like When will you be back? Tomorrow, maybe), or pragmatic (phone rings in a house, child answers and yells to another room in the house, Mom! Phone!) These reductions pose significant difficulties, especially for classroom learners who may have initially been exposed to the full forms of the English language.

Performance variables: In spoken language, except for planned discourse (speeches, lectures, etc.) hesitations, false starts, pauses, and corrections are common. Native listeners are conditioned from very young ages to weed out such performance variables, whereas they easily interfere with comprehension in second language learners.

Colloquial language: Learners who have been exposed to standard written English and/or textbook language sometimes find it surprising and difficult to deal with colloquial language. Idioms, slang, reduced forms, and shared cultural knowledge are all manifested at some point in conversations.

Rate of delivery: Speed. Pauses. Learners will eventually need to be able to comprehend language delivered at varying rates of speed and, at times, delivered with few pauses.

Stress, rhythm, and intonation: As English is a stress-timed language, English speech can be a terror for some learners as mouthfuls of syllables come spilling out between stress points. Also intonation patterns are very significant are very significant not just for interpreting straightforward elements such as questions, statements, and emphasis but for understanding more subtle messages like sarcasm, endearment, insult, solicitation, praise, etc.

Interaction: Conversation is subject to all the rules of interaction: negotiation, clarification, signals, turn-taking, and topic nomination, maintenance, and termination. So to learn to listen is also to learn to respond and to continue a chain of listening and responding.

Slide 5: What types of Listening Skills are developed?

Micro-skills: Attending to the smaller bits and chunks of language, in more of bottom-up process. (Handout 2-micro-skills table/ Teaching by Principles pg.:256)

Macro-skills: Focusing on the larger elements.

Slide 6: Types of Listening (What kinds of Listening Skills are taught?)

Reactive (listen and repeat)

Intensive (listen on a focused sound, phonemes, words, intonation)

Responsive (listen and respond – briefly- a greeting, giving commands, asking question, seeking clarification, checking comprehension)

Selective (listen for particular items in a longer passage- TV, radio news, media broadcasts, stories)

Extensive (listen for interactive/responsive purposes)

Interactive (listen to discuss, respond, debate)

Slide 7: What interferes with Listening Comprehension?

Unfamiliar vocabulary, Grammar, Text too long, Several people talking, Unfamiliar Context, Lots of details, Topic not interesting, Theme not clear, Accent, Speed, Idiomatic speech, Task too difficult, Unprepared for the

discussion, Not prepared for the format, A lack of background information.

Slide 8: Principles for designing Listening Techniques

Integrate listening into the course: In an interactive, four-skills curriculum, make sure that you don't overlook the importance of techniques that specifically develop listening comprehension competence.

Appeal to students' personal goals: Use techniques that are interesting and intrinsically motivating. Since background information (schemata) is an important factor in listening, take into full account the experiences, goals, and abilities of your students as you design lessons.

Use authentic language and contexts: Authentic language and real world tasks enable students to see the relevance of classroom activity to their long-term communicative goals.

Consider how students will respond: It is important for teachers to design techniques in such a way that students' responses indicate whether or not their comprehension has been correct. Lund (1990) offered nine different ways that we can check listener's comprehension.

doing- the listener responds physically to a command

choosing- the listener selects from alternatives such as pictures, objects, and texts

transferring- the listener draws a picture of what is heard

answering- the listener answers questions about the message

condensing- the listener outlines or takes notes on a lecture

extending- the listener provides an ending to a story heard

duplicating- the listener translates the message into the native language or repeats it verbatim

modeling- the listener orders a meal, for example, after listening to a model order

conversing- the listener engages in a conversation that indicates appropriate processing of information

Teach listening strategies:

looking for key words

looking for nonverbal cues to meaning

predicting a speaker's purpose by the context of the spoken discourse

associating information with one's existing cognitive structure (activating background information)

guessing at meanings

seeking clarification

listening for the general gist

various test-taking strategies for listening comprehension

Include both bottom-up & top-down listening:

Imagine the following situations:

Over lunch, your friend tells you a story about a recent holiday, which was a disaster. You listen with interest and interject at appropriate moments, maybe to express surprise or sympathy. That evening, another friend calls to invite you to a party at her house the following Saturday. As you've never been to her house before, she gives you

directions. You listen carefully and make notes.

* The way you listened to the holiday anecdote could be characterized as top-down listening. This refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of the message. Background knowledge consists of context, that is, the situation and topic, and co-text, in other words, what came before and after. The context of chatting to a friend in a casual environment itself narrows down the range of possible topics. Once the topic of a holiday has been established, our knowledge of the kind of things that can happen on holiday comes into play and helps us to ‘match’ the incoming sound signal against our expectations of what we might hear and to fill out specific details.

In contrast, when listening to directions to a friend’s house, comprehension is achieved by dividing and decoding the sound signal bit by bit. The ability to separate the stream of speech into individual words becomes more important here, if we are to recognize, for example, the name of a street or an instruction to take a particular bus.

In the classroom In real-life listening, our students will have to use a combination of the two processes, with more emphasis on top-down or bottom-up listening depending on their reasons for listening. However, the two types of listening can also be practiced separately, as the skills involved are quite different.

(Handout 3- Techniques for teaching listening comprehension using top-down, bottom-up and interactive types of activities- Teaching by Principles pg.:260-264)

Slide 9: Common Listening Strategies/ Activities w/focus to overcome the difficulties

Looking for key words

Looking for nonverbal cues to meaning

Predicting a speaker’s purpose by the context

Activating background knowledge

Guessing at meanings

Seeking clarification

Listening for the gist

Developing test-taking strategies for listening

Slide 10: Current issues in teaching oral skills

Conversational discourse: A marked feature of conversational discourse is the use of fixed expressions, or “routines,” that often have specific functions in conversation and give conversational discourse the quality of naturalness. Consider the following routines. Where might they occur? What might their function be within these situations?

This one’s on me.

I don’t believe a word of it.

I don't get the point.

Pawley and Syder (1983) suggest that native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of routines like these, that their use in appropriate situations creates conversational discourse that sounds natural and native-like, and that they have to be learned and used as fixed expressions.

In designing speaking activities or instructional materials for second language or foreign-language teaching, it is also necessary to recognize the very different functions speaking performs in daily communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills.

Teaching pronunciation: There has been some controversy over the role of pronunciation work in a communicative, interactive course of study, because the majority of adult learners will never acquire an accent-free command of a foreign language, should a language program that emphasizes whole language, meaningful contexts, and automaticity of production focus on these tiny phonological details of language? The answer is yes, but in a different way.

Accuracy and fluency: In spoken language the question we face as teachers is: How shall we prioritize the two clearly important speaker goals of accurate (clear, articulate, grammatically and phonologically correct) language and fluent (flowing, natural) language? Should our teaching techniques more message oriented or language oriented? Current approaches to language teaching lean strongly toward message orientation with language usage offering a supporting role.

Affective factors: Anxiety affects speaking. Our job as teachers is to provide the kind warm, embracing climate that encourages students to speak, however halting or broken their attempts may be.

Interaction effect: The greatest difficulty that learners encounter in attempts to speak is not the multiplicity of sounds, words, phrases, and discourse forms that characterize any language, but rather the interactive nature of most communication. So for the learner, the matter of what to say- a tremendous task, to be sure- is often eclipsed by conventions of how to say things, when to speak, any other discourse constraints. As you plan and implement techniques in your interactive classroom, make sure your students can deal with both interpersonal (sometimes referred as interactional) and transactional dialogue and they are able to converse with a total stranger as well as someone with whom they are quite familiar.

Questions about intelligibility: Students usually tell us that they feel they sound less smarter while speaking English than their native language? Why?

Slide 11: What makes speaking difficult?

The same things that make listening difficult: (but with a slight twist in that the learner is now the producer)

Clustering: Fluent speech is phrasal, not word by word. Learners can organize their output both cognitively and physically (in breath groups) through such clustering.

Redundancy: The speaker has an opportunity to make meaning clearer through the redundancy of language. Learners can capitalize on this feature of spoken language.

Reduced forms: Contractions, elisions, reduced vowels, etc. speakers usually have trouble with them. Students who don't learn colloquial contractions kind of speak like a book.

Performance variables: Hesitations, pauses, backtracking, and corrections. How to hesitate, think 'um', 'well', 'I mean', 'you know' and how to use these fillers correctly can be taught.

Colloquial language: Make sure that your students are reasonably well acquainted with the words, idioms, and phrases of colloquial language and they get practice in producing these forms.

Rate of delivery: Another important characteristics of fluency is rate of delivery. One of your tasks in teaching speaking English is to help learners achieve an acceptable speed along with other attributes of fluency.

Stress, rhythm, and intonation: This is the most important characteristics of English pronunciation. The stress-timed rhythm of spoken English and its intonation patterns convey important messages.

Interaction: As noted before, one learner's performance in speaking is always colored by that of the person (interlocutor) he or she is talking with.

Slide 12: Types of classroom performance

Imitative (this should be limited) – repetition drill- modeling is also important

Intensive – practice a grammatical/phonological feature- can be part of a pair-work

Responsive – to respond to a question- 'How are you today? Pretty good, thanks, and you?'

such speech can be meaningful and authentic

Transactional (dialog) – to convey information- such conversations could readily be part of group work activity as well as dialogs

Interpersonal (dialog) – to interact socially

These conversations are a little trickier for learners because they can involve some of these following factors: a casual register, colloquial language, emotionally charged language, slang, ellipsis, sarcasm, a covert 'agenda'

Extensive – monologs (intermediate/advanced) in the form of oral reports, summaries, or short speeches. The register is more formal, deliberative and planned.

Slide 13: What's the place of drills? Guidelines for Drills- How drills can be effective in speaking:

Drills offer students an opportunity to listen and to orally repeat certain strings of language that may pose some linguistic difficulty-either phonological or grammatical.

Keep them short

Keep them simple

Keep them snappy

Ensure that students know WHY they are doing the drill

Limit the drill to phonological/grammatical points

Ensure that they lead to a communicative goal

Do not overuse them

(Handout 4- of sample drills) <http://www.usingenglish.com/weblog/archives/000414.html>

Slide 14: Principles for Teaching Speaking

Focus on fluency and accuracy (depending on objective): Use techniques that cover the spectrum of learner needs, from language-based focus on accuracy to message-based focus on interaction, meaning, and fluency.

Use intrinsically motivating techniques: Try to appeal to students' ultimate goals and interests, to their need for knowledge, for status, for achieving competence and autonomy, and for being all they can be.

Use authentic language in meaningful contexts

Provide appropriate feedback and correction

Optimize the natural link between listening and speaking (and other skills): Two skills can reinforce each other. Skills in producing language are often initiated through comprehension.

Give students the opportunity to initiate oral communication: Use speaking techniques that allow students to initiate language.

Develop speaking strategies: Your classroom can be one of in which students become aware of, and have a chance to practice different strategies.

Slide 15: Common speaking strategies

Asking for clarification (what?)

Asking someone to repeat something

Using fillers

Using conversation maintenance cues (uh-huh, right, yeah, okay, hm)

Getting someone's attention

Using paraphrases for structures one can't produce

Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor

Using formulaic expressions

Using mime and nonverbal expressions

Slide 16: Sample activities for teaching conversation

(Handouts 5-15: set of different sample activities)

Interviews

(Handout 5 -eslflow.com) <http://www.examsreform.hu/Media/InterviewQ.pdf>

Guessing games

(Handout 6) <http://www.eslflow.com/Picprediction.html>

(Handout 7) Grammar Practice Activities, Penny Ur -27.5 Silhouettes pg.257

Jigsaw tasks

(Handout 8) <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Dycus-Jigsaw.html>

Ranking exercises

(Handout 9) <http://www.getyouridealjob.com/workbookexcerpt.pdf>

Discussions & Debates

(Handout 10) <http://claweb.cla.unipd.it/home/mcanapero/debate.htm>

Values clarification

(Handout 11) <http://www.ice.umd.edu/Docs/Values%20Clarification%20Exercise.pdf>

Problem-solving activities

(Handout 12) <http://www.teachabroadchina.com/esl-conversation-topic-social-problem-solving/>

Role plays

(Handout 13) <http://www.vitaeducation.org/wp-content/uploads/2010/05/Role-plays-Appointments.pdf>

Simulations

(Handout 14) <http://www.mariajordano.com/handouts/heatwave.pdf>

Picture story-telling

(Handout 15) http://www.englishlanguage.org.nz/tutors/resources/Car_Accident_Sequence_numbers.pdf
Grammar Practice Activities, Penny Ur -23.4 Pictures into story pg. 215-218

Slide 17: Should we teach pronunciation? The importance of pronunciation in speaking?

Views on teaching pronunciation changed dramatically over the last half of the twentieth century. Current approaches to pronunciation contrast starkly with the early approaches. Rather than attempting only to build a learner's articulatory competence from the bottom-up, and simply as the mastery of a list of phonemes and allophones, a top-down approach is taken in which the most relevant features of pronunciation- stress, rhythm, and intonation- are given high priority. Instead of teaching only the role of articulation within words, or at best, phrases, we teach its role in a whole stream of discourse.

Many learners of foreign languages feel that their ultimate goal in pronunciation should be accent-free speech that is indistinguishable from that of a native speaker. Such goal is not unattainable for virtually every adult learner, but in a multilingual, multicultural world, accents are quite acceptable. With the rapid spread of English as an international language, native accents have become almost irrelevant to cross-cultural communication. Moreover, as the world community comes to appreciate and value people's heritage, one's accent is just another symbol of that heritage.

Our goal as teachers of English pronunciation should be more realistically focused on clear, comprehensible pronunciation. At the beginning levels, we want learners to surpass that threshold beneath which pronunciation detracts from their ability to communicate. At the advanced levels, pronunciation goals can focus on elements that enhance communication: intonation features that go beyond basic patterns, voice quality, phonetic distinctions between registers, and other refinements that are far more important in the overall stream of clear pronunciation than rolling the English /r/ or getting a vowel to perfectly imitate a native speaker.

Slide 18: Factors that affect pronunciation

Native language: If you are familiar with the sound system of a learner's native language, you will be better able to diagnose student difficulties.

Age: Generally speaking, children under the age of puberty stand an excellent chance of sounding like a native if they have continued exposure in authentic contexts. Beyond the age of puberty while adults will almost surely maintain a foreign accent there is no particular advantage attributed to age.

Exposure: The quality and intensity of exposure are more important than mere length of time. If class time spent focusing on pronunciation demands full attention and interest of your students, then they stand a good chance of reaching their goals.

Innate phonetic ability: Often referred to as having an ear for language, some people manifest a phonetic coding ability that others do not. If pronunciation seems to be naturally difficult for some students, they should not despair, with some effort and concentration, they can improve their competence.

Identity and language ego: Having a positive attitude is important and also learners need to be aware of-not afraid of- the second identity that may be emerging within them.

Motivation/concern for good pronunciation: As teachers, you can help learners to perceive or develop that motivation by showing, among among other things, how clarity of speech is significant in shaping their self-image and, ultimately, in reaching some of their higher goals.

Slide 19: How can technology support the current goals of pronunciation learning?

Technology-enhanced speech instruction can be instrumental in advancing the learner's communication goals identified by Morley. Sources include the following:

Articulatory charts that show front and side views of the mouth as the speaker is producing a targeted sound.

Sample words utilizing the targeted sound.

Minimal pairs/comparison words-a presentation of two similar sounding words usually with only one (minimal) phoneme difference.

Listening discrimination of minimal pairs within a sentence- students listen to a sentence and identify which one of the two minimal-pair words (for example, lake or rake) the speaker is saying.

Sample sentences with several words utilizing the targeted sound.

Dictations- students listen and repeat or write what the speaker is saying.

Cloze exercises- students listen to sentences and select/produce correct missing words.

Suprasegmental exercises that practice intonation, rhythm, stress, timing.

Slide 20: How can technology provide focused practice for the development of English language learner's speaking skills?

-In selecting appropriate technology uses to enhance speech opportunities for language learners, one has to consider what type of interaction needs to be facilitated. For instance,

-video is a natural way to teach information routines requiring prediction in various ways that encourage communication and provide increased and more varied communicative opportunities for students to utilize their oral skills.

-some websites offer opportunities for students to listen to dialogs on various conversational topics and respond to real-life situations.

-some software programs utilize audio and video clips of everyday scenes in which people are engaged in interaction routines. They cover topics such as social engagements, dining out, travel, around town and etc. in highly interactive ways. Some other programs are also provide a rich resource for listening and speaking practice using dialogs again from everyday situations involving greetings, weather, telephone calls, restaurants, and travel.

Sample pronunciation lessons

<http://www.eslflow.com/pronunciationlessonplans.html>

Phonetics: The sounds of American English

<http://www.uiowa.edu/~acadtech/phonetics/english/frameset.html>

Slide 21: When and how should I correct errors?

Global and local errors

In a most practical and clearly written article on error correction, Hendrickson (1980) advised teachers to try to discern the difference between what Burt (1975) called **global** and **local errors** that learners make. **Global errors** hinder communication; they prevent the hearer from comprehending some aspect of the message. **Local errors**, because they usually only affect a single element of a sentence, do not prevent a message from being heard; context

provides keys to meaning.

Once a learner of English was describing a quaint old hotel in Europe and said, There is a French widow in every bedroom. The **local** error is clearly, and humorously, recognized. Hendrickson recommended that **local errors** usually need not be corrected since the message is clear and correction might interrupt a learner in the flow of productive communication. **Global errors** need to be corrected in some way since the message may otherwise remain garbled.

The matter of *how* to **correct errors** gets exceedingly complex. Research on error correction methods is not at all conclusive on the most effective method or technique for error correction. It seems quite clear that students in the classroom generally want and expect **errors** to be corrected (Cathcart and Olsen 1976). However, some methods recommend no direct treatment of error at all (Krashen and Terrell 1983). In natural, untutored environments nonnative speakers generally get corrected by native speakers on only a small percentage of **errors** that they make (Chun et al. 1982); native speakers will attend basically only to **global errors** and then usually not in the form of interruptions but at transition points in conversations (Day et al. 1984). Balancing these various perspectives, I think we can safely conclude that a sensitive and perceptive **language** teacher should make the **language classroom** a happy optimum between some of the over-politeness of the real world and the expectations that learners bring with them to the classroom.

Error treatment options can be classified in a number of possible ways, but one useful taxonomy is recommended by Bailey (1985), who drew from the work of Allwright (1975). Seven basic options are complemented by eight possible features within each option (Bailey 1985:111).

BASIC OPTIONS:

1. To treat or to ignore
2. To treat immediately or to delay
3. To transfer treatment [to, say, other learners] or not
4. To transfer to another individual, a subgroup, or the whole class
5. To return, or not, to original error maker after treatment
6. To permit other learners to initiate treatment
7. To test for the efficacy of the treatment

POSSIBLE FEATURES:

1. Fact of error indicated
2. Location indicated
3. Opportunity for new attempt given
4. Model provided
5. Error type indicated
6. Remedy indicated
7. Improvement indicated
8. Praise indicated

All of the basic options and features within each option are conceivably viable modes of error correction in the classroom. The teacher needs to develop the intuition, through experience and solid eclectic theoretical foundations, for ascertaining which option or combination of options is appropriate at given moments. Principles of optimal affective and cognitive feedback, of reinforcement theory, and of communicative **language** teaching, all combine to form those theoretical foundations.

The teacher's task is to value learners, prize their attempts to communicate, and then to provide optimal feedback for the system to evolve in successive stages until learners are communicating meaningfully and unambiguously in the second language.

Slide 22: Break-out Activity

With a partner/group, read the situations and write your predictions about what will happen. **Briefly discuss the main purpose of this activity and what learning strategies does it involve?**

Activity: Making Predictions

Level: Intermediate-High Intermediate

Objectives: This small discussion involves real-world issues. This type of activity encourages students to relate the topic to the authentic world of their own experiences. Asking students to discuss their predictions creates an authentic framework through which they can interpret the topic and contribute real examples from their own lives. Encouraging them to explain the reasons behind their predictions; for example, ask whether they considered details about characters, their own past experiences, or some other criteria.

Making Predictions

Read the descriptions of characters and their situations. Then, write what you think will happen in each situation. Predict whether the characters will communicate well or whether they will have a misunderstanding. Share your predictions in small groups.

Example

Characters

Character 1: John, a short man, about 65 years old.

Character 2: Emma, a tall woman, about 75 years old.

Situation:

John and Emma are standing in front of the only empty seat on a crowded New York City subway. If the man sits down, he is being impolite. If he remains standing, he may fall because he is too short to reach the strap.

Your prediction:

Example 1: Emma convinces the man to sit down. They start talking. Both of them miss their stops. They communicate well and agree to get off the subway at the next stop and have coffee together.

Example 2: John gives the seat to Emma. When the subway starts suddenly, he falls into her lap. They communicate well, and they laugh and say that there should be more subways during rush hour.

Example 3: Emma and John try to make the seat at the same time. They do not communicate well and while they are arguing, someone else comes along and takes the seat.

1. Characters

Character 1: Eddie, a 16-year-old boy who wants to be a rock musician. He is kind and loves his mother. His father died when he was a small boy.

Character 2: Rosa, Eddie's loving but very conservative mother.

Situation:

Eddie wants to have his nose-pierced and wear a silver nose ring, but he only wants to do it with his mother's permission. Eddie and his mother are sitting in the living room discussing the pros and cons, the positive and negative sides of piercing.

Your prediction:

2. Characters

Character 1: A shy young man, 26 years old

Character 2: A confident young woman, 25 years old

Situation:

The young man and young woman met a year and a half ago. She would like to marry him. He would like to marry her. They're finishing a romantic dinner at a very nice restaurant. Both the young man and the young woman are trying to figure out a way to bring up the topic of marriage. Who will bring up the topic of marriage first?

Your prediction:

3. Characters

Character 1: Haroum, a 22-year-old man with two tickets to a soccer match

Character 2: Bob, a 22-year-old man who loves soccer but has a chemistry midterm exam tomorrow.

Situation:

Bob and Haroum are in a coffee shop at 3:00pm. Haroum is trying to convince Bob to go to the soccer match.

Your prediction:

4. Characters

Character 1: Dani, a 20-year-old student who is buying food for the a party.

Character 2: Gerry, a grocery store clerk who is also a student and a friend of Dani's

Situation:

Dani goes to the checkout counter of the store to pay for \$83 worth of drinks and food for a party. She looks in her wallet and discovers that she has only \$64 cash with her. The store will not accept checks or credit cards. The check at the store is a close personal friend of Dani's but has not yet been invited to the party.

Your prediction:

5. Characters

Character 1: Tony Ling, a father living in Hong Kong

Character 2: Martin, his 15-year-old son

Situation:

The father has been offered a good job with higher pay in Toronto and wants to move. His son does not want to leave Hong Kong, his high school, and his friends. They are discussing this problem at breakfast. How will they settle their disagreement?

Your prediction:

6. Characters

Character 1: Sandy, an "A" student who has just gotten an "F" grade for the first time on a midterm exam

Character 2: Professor Hayuda, who is tough but usually fair

Situation:

Sandy is in the professor's office explaining why he or she failed the exam. Sandy tells the professor about a personal problem and asks to take the exam again.

Your prediction:

7. Characters

Character 1: Al, the father of a three-year-old baby

Character 2: Bess, the mother of the baby

Situation:

There is a law in their state that requires parents to choose a name for their baby within three days after it is born. The mother wants to name the baby Sunshine; the father hates that name and wants to name the baby Hester, after his mother.

Your prediction:

8. Characters

Character 1: Maria, a young art student who has just moved into a new apartment

Character 2: Rob, a business major in his 20s and a good friend of Maria's

Situation:

Maria is in her new apartment, hanging pictures on the wall. The doorbell rings and Rob walks in with a gift- a picture for Maria's apartment. Maria thinks it is the ugliest picture she has ever seen.

Your prediction:

Follow up Activity: Role Play with a partner, choose one of the previous nine situations to act out. You may either use a prediction that one of you wrote, or write a new one together.

* Do you think your individual perspectives or points of view (your personal languages) account for the differences. Discuss why or why not.